

STEREOTYPES IN RETAIL PRINT ADVERTISING: THE EFFECTS OF
GENDER AND PHYSICAL APPEARANCE ON CONSUMER PERCEPTIONS

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The retail sector spends millions of dollars each year advertising to consumers. This is a considerable investment for companies seeking effective ways to inform and persuade the consumer. Consequently, retailers need to develop creative message strategies and tactics that will positively affect consumer attitudes. One particular tactic available to retailers is the use of a spokesperson in the advertisement. Salespersons are used in numerous advertisements and can provide key benefits to an advertiser. However, to maximize these benefits, retailers need to carefully select the spokesperson that will be most effective for their store and product. This purpose of this research is to examine the characteristics that influence consumers' perceptions of print advertisements that include a spokesperson in the advertisement.

Most of the past literature concerning spokespersons has concentrated on the consumer perspective of meeting and

interacting with a living, breathing person. This research seeks to use the past research on salespeople to examine the spokesperson as a cue in a print advertisement. In this perspective, the consumer views the spokesperson from a visual-only perspective. The proposed experiment will utilize print advertisements from two retail businesses. More specifically the study will investigate how consumers react if the individual viewed in the advertisement is typical (matches with their preconceived stereotype) or if the salesperson is atypical (does not match with their preconceived stereotype). This research also examines how men and women are viewed differently in the spokesperson role and how changes in physical appearance may impact consumers' perceptions. The research also studies the influence of spokesperson stereotypes on consumers' cognitive responses.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	v
Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	6
Introduction	
Categorization Theory	
Categorization and Stereotypes	
Source Credibility	
Source Expertise	
Trustworthiness	
Physical Attractiveness	
Similarity	
Source Credibility and Involvement	
The Presence of Eyeglasses	
Research Questions	
Hypotheses	
3. RESEARCH METHODS	37
Sex of the Salesperson	
Presence of Eyeglasses	
Product Category	
Confound Check	
Manipulation Checks	
Dependent Variables	
Stimuli Development	
Sample	
Task	
Questionnaire Design	
Statistical Analysis	

Limitations of Study	
Conclusion	
4. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	53
Reliability and Validity	
Confound Tests	
Model Testing	
Hypotheses Testing	
4. FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	73
APPENDIX	80
REFERENCE LIST104

LIST OF TABLES

Title	Page
1.1 Projected Advertising Spending By Medium (Year 2000 Estimates)	2
3.1 Summary of Research Design	37
3.2 Pretest Results for Physical Attractiveness . .	41
3.3 Results of Product Category Pretests (Means) . .	43
3.4 Positive and Negative Product Category Results .	44
3.5 Measurement Scales	45
4.1 Cronbach's Alpha	54
4.2 Factor Loadings for Variables	55
4.3 Confound Checks for Physical Attractiveness . . .	56
4.4 MANOVA Procedure	58
4.5 ANOVA (Attitude toward Advertisement)	59
4.6 ANOVA (Attitude toward the Product)	60
4.7 ANOVA (Attitude toward the Salesperson)	60
4.8 ANOVA (Purchase Intentions)	61
4.9 ANOVA (Trust)	61
4.10 ANOVA (Expertise)	62
4.11 Statistics for Hypothesis One	63
4.12 Statistics for Hypothesis Two	64

4.13	Statistics for Hypothesis Three	65
4.14	Additional Cognitive Response Data	66
4.15	Statistics for Hypothesis Four	67
4.16	Matching Gender and Cognitive Responses	68
4.17	Statistics for Hypothesis Five	68
4.18	Statistics for Hypothesis Six	69
4.19	Statistics for Hypothesis Seven	70
4.20	Trustworthiness of Salespersons	70

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The retail sector accounted for \$9,043.1 million of all advertising expenditures in 1999 (Ad Age 2000). This is a considerable investment for companies seeking effective ways to inform and persuade the consumer. Moreover, research has shown that consumer attitudes toward the advertisement can impact attitude toward the brand (or store) and purchase intentions (Maheswaran and Sternhall 1990).

Consequently, retailers need to develop creative message strategies and tactics that will positively affect consumer attitudes. One particular tactic available to retailers is the use of a salesperson in the advertisement. Salespersons are used in numerous advertisements and can provide key benefits to an advertiser. However, to maximize these benefits, retailers need to carefully select the salesperson that will be most effective for their store and product. This research seeks to examine the characteristics that influence consumers' perceptions of

print advertisements that include a salesperson in the advertisement.

The projected year 2000 expenditures for advertising in the United States is expected to exceed \$134 billion (Ad Age 2000), and as indicated in Table 1.1, print advertisements (newspaper and magazines) account for nearly one-half (46.6%) of these expenditures.

Table 1.1: Projected Advertising Spending by Medium (Year 2000 Estimates)

Medium	Percentage of Spending
Television	38.7%
Newspapers	34.4%
Radio	13.0%
Magazines	12.2%
Outdoor	1.8%
	(Source: Ad Age, 2000)

Further, in 1999, the retail sector accounted for \$9,043.1 million of all advertising expenditures (Ad Age 2000).

Thus understanding effective print advertising tactics for retail stores seems critical.

Many consumers have a traditionally negative view of a salesperson (Pavelchak 1991, Babin et al 1995, Thompson 1972). These negative stereotypes can actually cause consumers to avoid salespersons in certain instances and can decrease the number of selling activities performed by the salesperson. There are also certain instances where a consumer can possess positive stereotypes about a specific type of profession (e.g., a medical doctor) which can increase a person's likelihood to like and respect any individual in that profession. Although there has been some work conducted in the area of salesperson stereotypes (Thompson 1972, Darden and French 1971, Stafford, Leigh and Martin 1995), the topic of how salesperson stereotypes impact consumer attitudes and cognitive responses has remained an area in need of more academic research (Reingen and Kerman 1993).

Most of the past literature concerning salespersons has concentrated on the consumer perspective of meeting and interacting with a living, breathing person. This research seeks to use the past research on salespeople to examine the spokesperson as a cue in a print advertisement. In this perspective, the consumer views the spokesperson from a visual-only perspective. The proposed experiment will

utilize print advertisements from two retail businesses. More specifically the study will investigate how consumers react if the individual viewed in the advertisement is typical (matches with their preconceived stereotype) or if the spokesperson is atypical (does not match with their preconceived stereotype). This research also examines how men and women are viewed differently in the spokesperson role and how changes in physical appearance may impact consumers' perceptions. The research also examines the influence of spokesperson stereotypes on consumers' cognitive responses.

Chapter two begins with a review of the literature concerning how consumers, and people in general, process and categorize information about objects and other people. Topics further addressed in the literature review include issue of sex of spokesperson and the physical appearance and credibility of salespersons. Finally, the research questions for this study are presented along with the research hypotheses.

Chapter three begins with a description of the research design utilized in this study along with a description of the independent and dependent variables. Details on sample design, questionnaire development, and

the respondent tasks are presented as well. A discussion of the proposed statistical analysis and the limitations of the study follow.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

American consumers are exposed to millions of advertisements during their lifetime. While some of the advertisements are lost in the clutter of an overabundance of advertisements and information, some of the "better" advertisements do invade the selective screening process and consumers are entertained, informed and even persuaded by those advertisements.

There are benefits to using spokespersons in advertising, existing research has shown that the credibility, the sex and physical attractiveness of the spokesperson influence the persuasiveness of the advertisement. Additionally, involvement levels can influence and perhaps moderate the effectiveness of certain advertisements. Further, how a person classifies or "categorizes" information and people also impacts how advertisements are viewed by the consumer. The following literature review will examine each of these topics in more

detail beginning with categorization theory, the foundation of chapter two.

Categorization Theory

Categorization is a process that persons use to help identify and interact with other persons and objects. A category is comprised of two or more distinguishable objects or events that are treated equivalently (Mervis and Rosch 1981). Fiske and Pavelchak (1986, p. 170) defined categorization as the process of "identifying a stimulus as a member of its class, similar to other members and dissimilar from non-members by the process of rating identifying characteristics". More specifically, categorization is used by consumers to determine that a specific item is a member of a certain category (ex. this person is a professor or this piece of furniture is a chair). It can also be used to identify that a specific concept is a subset of another concept (ex. McDonalds is a fast food chain or roses are a flower).

For example, if a person possesses a concept of X and knows attributes and information about X, then such attributes and information can be used to categorize new objects a person encounters (Smith and Medin 1981). As

Bruner, Goodnow and Austin (1956, p. 3) noted "to categorize is to render discriminably different things equivalent, to group objects and events and people around us into classes, and to respond to them in terms of their class membership rather than their uniqueness."

The Classical View of Categorization Theory posits that each item in a category should have all of the attributes that determine category membership and that all items in a category should be equally representative (Smith and Medin 1981). Therefore, from a classical perspective, if in a person's view that all roses have thorns and that person encounters a rose which does not have thorns, then 'having thorns' would not be an attribute for the category of roses. However, in recent years, there has been growing disillusionment with regards to the classical view. In the Probabilistic View of Categorization, research has shown that many categories may not be well-defined and not all members of a category are equally good examples of that category (Rosch and Mervis 1975, Smith and Medin 1981). For example, a person might say that this smells like a rose, looks like a rose and even if it does not have thorns, I will still classify it as a rose.

Fiske and Pavelchak's (1986) basic model posits that a person's reaction to another person or object consists of an initial categorization stage followed by a second-affect generation stage. While it has taken multiple pages to explain how one person can react to another person or object, this process is an instantaneous one with the match immediately triggering an affect. One major implication of this model is that the basic category label will possess more impact than any single trait since the category label has stronger and additional links to the attributes than the attributes have to each other.

Persons can be evaluated by two different processes: piecemeal and category-based evaluations. However, category based-evaluations appear to be more simpler and efficient (Pavelchak 1989). The category-based evaluation process involves the retrieval of information stored in a person's memory and is likely to be successful when there is a close match between the person or object being evaluated and the schema stored in memory. When category-based evaluations are not successful, then a person reverts to piecemeal based evaluations where each attribute is considered individually rather than as a complete category.

Fiske's work (1982; Fiske and Pavelchak 1986) posits that affective reactions to other persons are directed by a person's prior experience and/or beliefs about that category of individuals. This process of arriving at a judgement is called "schema-triggered affect" or "category-based affect" in the literature. If a person is perceived as typical (i.e., matching a category based on prior experience), a consumer tends to process less information about the individual since category information already exists. Research by Anderson, Klatsky and Murray (1990) found that descriptions using stereotypes were processed more quickly by respondents than descriptions that did not contain stereotypes. Sujan et al (1986) found that if a buyer perceived a salesperson as typical, product evaluation was unaffected by the quality of product arguments presented; however, when the salesperson was perceived as atypical, buyers engaged in more analytical or systematic processing than in the typical salesperson situation (i.e. piecemeal evaluation).

Categorization and Stereotypes

While the earlier discussion in this chapter dealt primarily with the categorization of tangible objects,

consumers also categorize *people* based on their past experiences. The sum of a person's past experiences can result in a stereotype of certain people (Pavelchak 1991), occupations (Pratto and Bargh 1991) and/or physical characteristics (Hoffman and Hurst 1990, Mussweiler and Stack 2000). Specifically research has shown that many consumers possess negative stereotypes of salespeople (Thompson 1972, Adkins and Swan 1981, Babin, Boles and Darden 1995). In general, stereotypes, whether they are positive or negative, are viewed in the literature as cognitive economizers. In other words, stereotypes allow a subject to use less cognitive ability or to use that ability to complete another task (Bodenhausen 1990, Gilbert and Hixon 1991).

Social stereotypes do allow consumers to make available limited cognitive resources for other necessary or pleasing activities (Macrae, Milne and Bodenhausen 1994). In other words, if a consumer views a spokesperson as atypical (not a stereotype), then the consumer will engage in more cognitive processing or thinking than if a consumer views a spokesperson as typical. Fiske (1982) describes a process known as schema triggered affect (STA) in which there are typical characteristics that can cause

category-typical conclusions to happen automatically. When STA occurs, consumers perceive typical attributes or cues for a category and retrieve from memory a habitual reaction to those cues or attributes. Research by Fiske and Pavelchak (1986), Fiske (1987), and Sujan, Bettman and Sujan (1986) has provided evidence of this process.

Research has shown that consumers tend to view some spokespersons more positively or negatively than other spokespersons for certain product categories (Boles and Darden 1995). Pavelchak (1991) found that consumers tend to have very different views of spokespersons depending upon the product category; used car spokespersons were perceived less favorably than personal computer salespersons. In fact, Babin, Boles and Darden (1995) found that the following characteristics were most associated with automobile salespersons: smiling constantly, walking quickly, smoking, being overweight, having thinning hair, dressing unstylishly, speaking loudly, shaking hands, and lying. While the existing research has illustrated that certain types of salespeople are viewed differently by consumers, the next section will examine how a credible or noncredible source can impact consumer perceptions.

Source Credibility

Research has found that the perceived image of a person, or the salesperson, in the advertisement can influence the audience, or receiver's, response to the advertisement (e.g., Sternhall et al 1978, Hovland and Weiss 1952, Swartz 1984, Nataraajan and Chawla 1997). Over the years source credibility has been defined in many ways. Two of the highly used definitions of source credibility are Rogers (1971, p. 244) which defined credibility as the "degree to which a communication source or channel is perceived as trustworthy and competent by the receiver" and Ohanian (1990, p. 41) which defined source credibility as "the communicator's positive characteristics that affect the receiver's acceptance of a message".

Highly credible sources have a propensity to change the attitudes of the subjects to a higher degree than less credible sources (Choo 1964; Swartz 1984). Consumers perceive products with highly credible sources as "more safe" than products with less credible sources (Tse 1999). Both the perceived expertise and credibility of a source influence product purchase intentions by consumers (O'Mahony and Meenaghan 1998). This is true not only with

salespersons in advertisements, but with salespeople as well. Salesperson credibility has a direct effect on buying decisions when consumer expectations of product and brand quality are low while salesperson credibility does not have an effect on buying decisions when customer expectations of quality are high (Sharma 1990). Gotleib et al (1987) found that source credibility influenced consumer perceptions for both high and low involvement services.

Furthermore, Grewal et al (1994) proposed that the effect of price on the consumer's perceptions of risk is moderated by both how the message is framed and by the credibility of the source; low source credibility resulted in greater influence on price on consumer's expectation of risk. Zhang and Buda's study (1999) concentrated on a consumer's need for cognition (NFC) and source credibility on the processing of framed advertising messages. They found that source credibility functioned as a moderator when there was low NFC (need for cognition) and that subjects with a high NFC subjects paid less attention to the source than low NFC subjects. While these studies have highlighted the evidence of how source credibility can impact the elements of the marketing mix, source credibility itself can be divided into three elements or

dimensions according to the literature. Specifically, Ohanian (1990) partitioned source credibility into three dimensions: expertise, trustworthiness, and physical attractiveness. Each of these dimensions will be discussed in detail.

Source Expertise

Source expertise has been defined as "the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions" (Hovland, Janis and Kelley 1953). McCrosky (1966) has used the term authoritativeness while Berlo (1960) has used the term qualification to describe source expertise. Tedeschi et al (1973) found that expertise can result from the perception of his or her experience, education or competence. Giffin (1967) found that interpersonal trust is based upon the perception of expertness, reliability, intentions, activeness and personal attractiveness while expert sources are considered more sincere than less expert sources (Maddux and Rogers 1980, Braunsberger and Munch 1998).

It is also suggested by O'Hara et al (1991) that although trustworthiness of the source has a positive impact on the amount of persuasion, source expertise has an

even greater impact on changing attitudes. Research by O'Mahony and Meenaghan (1998) found that consumer purchase intentions were swayed by both source credibility and source expertise; the more expert the consumer believed the source to be, the more likely the consumer would be to purchase the product.

O'Hara et al (1991) found source expertise to be strongly related to a consumer's attitude, behavior, and perception of other people towards that same behavior. Source expertise can act as a central processing cue in print advertisements and possibly other advertising conditions (Homer and Kahle 1990). Woodside and Davenport (1974) and Busch and Wilson (1976) both found that customer's purchasing behaviors were positively influenced by the perceived expertise of the salesperson. While Till and Busler (1998) found that physical attractiveness had an effect on purchase intentions, the expertise of the source was more important for matching a brand with the appropriate spokesperson. This finding is furthered by the research of Maddux and Rogers (1980) who found that physical attractiveness had no main or interaction effects on persuasion suggesting that under some conditions the

source must also be perceived as having expertise in order to persuade.

Trustworthiness

Doney and Cannon (1997) and Ganesan (1994) define trust as the customer's perception of credibility and benevolence of a salesperson or a source. Trust is seen to have an element of risk attached to it - with trustworthiness comes the risk that trust has been misplaced or that the trust could be misused (Tedeschi et al 1973). Swan et al (1988) found that key trust components in the industrial sales setting to be responsibility, honesty, dependability, competence and likability. McGinnis and Ward (1980) found that overall the expert and trustworthy source generated the most opinion change in the subjects; however the trustworthy source, whether expert or not, was more persuasive than the expert source in changing opinions.

Sources that are perceived by consumers as being more "trustworthy" are more influential than "less trustworthy" sources with regard to changing attitudes (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). Trustworthiness was found to be significantly related to consumer purchasing variables such

as product quality, price, and information search; when trustworthiness was rated low, unit price and product quality were rated as being more important by consumers than when trustworthiness was rated high (Chawla, Dave and Barr 1994). In the sales setting, trust in the salesperson can have a positive impact on the persuasion and buying attitudes of a customer (Millman and Fugate 1988).

The more likable a source is perceived to be, the more persuasive that source tends to be (Chaiken 1980). O'Hara et al (1991) posited that likability may have a smaller impact on attitude change than either source expertise or trustworthiness. This is due in part to research suggesting that the impact of likability on persuasion is secondary to the impact of source expertise and trustworthiness (McGuire 1985). Friedman and Friedman (1976) found trust to be highly correlated with not only with liking, but with similarity, attractiveness and source expertise. Also, research by Swan et al (1988) regarding industrial salespeople found that the more likeable a salesperson was the more trustworthy the buyer perceived that salesperson to be. Recent research by Nicholson, Compeau and Sethi (2001) tested a model which posited that liking held a mediating role in regard to developing trust.

Physical Attractiveness

Morrow (1990, p. 47) defines physical attractiveness as the "degree to which one's facial image elicits favorable reactions from others." Using photographs of a person's face to rate physical attractiveness tends to be a common and reliable form of measuring physical attractiveness (Patzner 1985, Morrow 1990). Salesperson attractiveness has been identified as a factor which impacts persuasiveness of the communication medium (Baker and Churchill 1977, Joseph 1982, DeShields, Kara and Kaynak 1996). Gillen (1981) found that people rated low in physical attractiveness are perceived as having a lesser amount of desirable character traits than people rated high in physical attractiveness. Baker and Churchill (1977) found partial confirmation that when the male model was used in the advertisement, female subjects seemed to express a stronger intention to act on the advertisement than the male subjects, but neither the attractiveness of the male model nor the type of product advertised had any effect on consumer behavioral intentions.

Physically attractive sources were rated more highly than less physically attractive sources on the following characteristics: sociable, status, interesting, strong, sexually warm and responsive, outgoing and poised (Maddux and Rogers 1980). Byre, London and Reeves (1968) found that attractive male salespersons were viewed as being less moral and less intelligent than unattractive male salespersons while attractive female salespersons were perceived as more intelligent and more moral than unattractive female salespersons. Till and Busler (1988) found that the use of an attractive salesperson paired with a product category that was perceived to enhance a user's attractiveness (e.g., Colgate) was more effective than the use of an attractive salesperson paired with a product category that was not perceived as enhancing the user's attractiveness (e.g., a ballpoint pen).

Studies indicate that employers possess a favorable bias toward more physically attractive employees (Morrow et al 1990, Jackson 1973). Eagly and Chaiken (1975) found that both attractive and unattractive subjects were equally persuasive when promoting a desirable position on a topic, but that attractive salespersons were more persuasive than their counterparts when promoting an undesirable position.

In addition, research by Patzer (1983) supported the hypothesis that there is a causal relationship between physical attractiveness of the communication source and the perceived salesperson trust, expertise and likability. Furthermore, more favorable selling skills have been attributed to highly attractive salespersons: buyers tended to treat physically attractive salespeople more cordially than less attractive salespeople (Reingen and Kernan 1994).

Kelman (1961) even thought that the physical attractiveness of the source and the perceived expertise of the source could, under specific conditions, make an involving decision more personally involving. It is thought that under low involvement conditions, individuals are more likely to agree with an expert, rather than nonexpert, source, agree with a likable, rather than nonlikable source, and agree with a physically attractive, rather than a nonattractive, source (DeBono and Harnish 1988, Petty et al 1981, Chaiken 1980 and Pallack 1983).

Physical Attractiveness and Sex of Source

While physical attractiveness certainly impacts how persons view other people and objects, recent studies have examined the notion of gender stereotypes (Deaux and Lewis

1984). Research by Broverman et al (1972) found that women tend to be perceived as warmer and more expressive than men and men tend to be perceived as more competent and rational. In fact, Deaux and Lewis (1984, p. 1003) note that the "importance of physical appearance cues to an understanding of gender stereotypes cannot be minimized."

Further research by Snyder and Rothbart (1971) found that the more physically attractive male model was liked by the subjects (high school and college level males and females) more than the less physically attractive male model. Horai et al's (1974) study utilized female (junior high) students and a male (college age) source and found that physical attractiveness (three levels; high, low and none) and source expertise had significantly positive main effects, but no interaction effects; the dependent variables in this study were message agreement, a measure of source liking and message recall. Chaiken (1979) also found that physical attractiveness had a positive effect on attitude and intended behavior using both male and female sources and male and female subjects of relatively the same age.

Mills and Aronson's 1965 study contained male subjects (college aged) and female sources (college aged as well).

Attractiveness was manipulated on two levels (high and low) and main effects were found for source liking and certain favorable personality traits. However Blass et al (1974) used the same subjects and source as Mills and Aronson (1965) with the main effect being non-significant. Joseph (1977) used male and female undergraduates as subjects and college age females as the sources and found that physical attractiveness did impact source liking and similarity. Furthermore, when a source was perceived as expert, the source's physical attractiveness had little impact on the subject's actions, but the source was not perceived as an expert, the subjects tended to agree more with the highly physically attractive source as opposed to the medium or low physically attractive source (Joseph 1977). Frieden's study of salesperson effects (1984) observed that on some measures a male salesperson tended to have more favorable response than a female salesperson; however this conclusion was not statistically significant across all tested variables. Swartz (1984) noted that physical attractiveness, as a component of source credibility, tended in research to be divided into three aspects, similarity, familiarity, and liking, which factor into salesperson attractiveness.

Similarity

The recipient's attitude toward an object can be modified by the salesperson's manipulation of the perceived similarity between recipient and salesperson (Brock 1965). In Brock's 1965 study, a paint salesman attempted to persuade a customer to switch to either a lower or higher price line of paint by either communicating a similar or dissimilar level of paint consumption by the salesman personally. Studies have also indicated that a recipient's perception of his/her similarity to the salesperson will affect the salesperson's effectiveness (Brock 1965); the life-stage, sex, cultural background, work attitude and personality of the two parties will impact the trust, satisfaction, commitment and overall quality of the relationship (Smith 1998). Race and gender also that need to be considered when conducting research on similarity between salesperson and consumer (Chawla and Nataraajan 1995).

When salesperson attractiveness is controlled, similarities between salesperson and recipient that are relevant to the exchange effect a greater opinion change than similarities which are not relevant to the exchange (Berscheid 1966). Parties in a relationship will categorize

themselves by different social attributes and comparing and contrasting themselves against the social attributes of other parties they meet and encounter (Turner 1982). Interestingly enough, consumers tend to categorize same-sex (i.e. persons of similar sex) more quickly than opposite-sex subjects (Zarate and Smith 1990).

In a sales context, selling behaviors were found to be varied depending upon the gender similarity between the buyer and seller (Palmer and Bejou 1995). There is also evidence to suggest that similarity can turn into liking for the similar person (Byrne 1961; Byrne and Wong 1962) and could possibly lead to trust and respect (Marsh 1967). In the selling context, Woodside and Davenport (1974) found that similarity between customer and salesperson influenced product purchases. Purchase intentions were rated higher by subjects who were the same sex as the salesperson than by subjects who were of the opposite sex as the salesperson (Caballero, Lumpkin and Madden 1989).

Source Credibility and Involvement

In the existing advertising literature, the construct of involvement is often used as a mediator of advertising

effectiveness (Greenwald and Leavitt 1984, Zaichkowsky 1986, Mazursky and Schul 1992). Zaichkowsky (1985) defines involvement as a person's "perceived relevance" to an object while Petty and Cacioppo (1981) define product involvement as a function of its direct personal relevance and the degree of the consumer's concern to form a reasoned opinion. Richins and Bloch (1986) divide product involvement into two categories: situational and enduring. Situational involvement is the degree of involvement evoked by a particular situation and influenced by marketing mix variables and other situational variables. Enduring involvement is an ongoing concern for the product that the individual brings into a purchasing situation (Richins & Bloch 1986; Houston and Rothschild 1978).

A body of advertising research has dealt with the topic of persuasion, specifically the differences between two alternate routes of persuasion (Chaiken 1980, Petty et al 1983). The central route of persuasion is said to be used when consumers actively engage in comprehending and evaluating messages, and any attitude change by the consumer will be done by a systematic processing of information with a high degree of cognitive effort. Any attitude change that results from a peripheral route will

originate from simple persuasive cues that the consumer will perceive as independent of message content and not because the consumer has personally examined and evaluated the message content.

Mazursky and Schul (1992) found that involvement moderates the joint effectiveness of source credibility and message quality; under low involvement the source is considered independently of the message while under high involvement the source was perceived as part of the message. In other words, source credibility functions as a peripheral cue under low involvement and a central cue under high involvement. This research is especially useful in the area of involvement and consumer attitudes. Any advertising containing a salesperson in a product category that a consumer possesses a high level of involvement with would be processed differently by the consumer than if the advertisement were for a product category that the consumer considered low involvement.

The Presence of Eyeglasses

Using Morrow's 1990 definition of physical attractiveness, the presence or lack of eyeglasses would be a factor in a person's perceived physical attractiveness.

According to research, one in four Americans under the age of 35 wear eyeglasses, 38% percent of those age 35-54 wear eyeglasses and 42% of those over 55 wear eyeglasses (Crispell 1995). Psychological studies have indicated that the presence of eyeglasses influences the facial memory of subjects (McKelvie 1988, Harris 1991). Argyle and McHenry (1971) found that persons who were wearing eyeglasses and had only been seen briefly by the subject were viewed by the subjects as being more intelligent than persons without eyeglasses. This reinforces the findings by Thornton (1942) and Manz and Lueck (1968) which concluded that subjects wearing glasses tend to be viewed as more intelligent and more industrious than subjects not wearing glasses.

However, Argyle and McHenry (1971) found that there were no differences in perceived intelligence between persons wearing and persons not wearing eyeglasses if the person was viewed for more than five minutes by the subject. This is an interesting conclusion both in the area of sales, where it is usual to have longer interaction times between salesperson and customer, and in advertising, where normally the advertisement, where it be print or televised medium, is viewed briefly. Boshier's (1975) videotape study concluded that both men and women wearing

eyeglasses were perceived as more intelligent. In a later study, Harris (1991) found that generally subjects wearing glasses were generally perceived as more intelligent and intense and interestingly enough, both women and men with glasses were viewed as either being more feminine or more masculine, respectively. Some studies have shown that, overall, people wearing glasses have been perceived as being less attractive than those who do not wear glasses (Berk 1963, Knoll 1978, Terry 1989). Terry (1989), however, found that while female subjects were rated as less attractive when wearing their eyeglasses, male subjects were actually rated as more attractive when wearing their eyeglasses.

Elman (1977) found that both female and male subjects perceived males wearing glasses as being softer, gentler and more sensitive and more of a follower than males not wearing glasses. Interestingly, research with children indicate that children rate other children wearing eyeglasses lower in physical attractiveness, school performance and conduct (Terry and Stockton 1993) Furthermore, the study also concluded that females were rated as being lower in attractiveness when wearing eyeglasses than their male stimulus counterparts wearing

eyeglasses. Preschool age subjects, however, seem to have difficulty processing information concerning eyeglasses (McGraw, Durm, and Patterson 1983) indicating that perception of eyeglasses is a learned response in older children and adults.

The Research Questions

Given the existing literature on advertising, stereotypes, and source effects, the following research questions will be examined:

1. How does the physical appearance of a spokesperson in a print advertisement influence consumers' attitudes?
2. How do spokesperson stereotypes influence consumers' perceptions of a print advertisement?
3. Do consumers react differently to print advertisements when the spokesperson is typical or atypical?

These research questions, along with the preceding literature review, will be used to guide the development of the research hypotheses. A brief discussion of the key literature regarding each hypothesis precedes each hypothesis.

Hypotheses

In general, the existing literature suggests that stereotypes are viewed in the literature as cognitive economizers; that is, stereotypes allow a subject to use lower levels of cognitive ability or to use that ability with regard to another mental task (Bodenhausen 1990; Gilbert and Hixon 1991). In other words, if a consumer views a spokesperson as atypical (not a stereotype), then the consumer will engage in more cognitive processing or thinking. Extending this line of thinking to the use of a spokesperson in a print advertisement for a retail business, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H1: A stereotype mismatch between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a retail print advertisement will result in a higher number of cognitive responses than a stereotype match between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a retail print advertisement.

Consumers have different perceptions of various product categories and how each of the salespersons for those categories should look and act. For example, existing research and pretests from this research suggests

that consumers possess more positive opinions about the product category of personal computers versus the product category of used automobiles. Further, consumers perceive spokespersons for used automobile dealerships to be typically male while consumers perceive spokespersons for personal computer retailers to be typically male and to wear glasses (Pavelchak 1991). As discussed, a category match with a negatively viewed product category should generate a quicker application of affect and a positive match with a negatively viewed category should generate a quicker application of negative affect (Fiske 1982, Fiske and Pavelchak 1986, Sujan et al 1986). Further, a mismatch should cause deliberate processing and contrast effects (Fiske 1982, Fiske and Pavelchak 1986). Thus the following hypotheses are offered:

H2: A stereotype match between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a retail print advertisement for a positively viewed product category (personal computers) will result in more positive attitudinal judgments than a stereotype match between consumer perceptions and a spokessperson in a negatively viewed product category (used automobiles).

H3: A stereotype mismatch between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a retail print advertisement for a negatively viewed product category (used automobiles) will result in more positive attitudinal judgments than a stereotype match between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson for a positively viewed product category (personal computers).

Research by Smith (1998) and Chawla and Natarajan (1995) found that sex of the salesperson or spokesperson impacts the effectiveness of the communicated message. Studies have also indicated that a recipient's perception of his or her similarity to the spokesperson will affect the salesperson's effectiveness (Brock 1965); that is, the life-stage, sex, cultural background, work attitude and personality of the two parties will impact the trust, satisfaction, commitment and overall quality of the relationship (Smith 1998). Furthermore, Palmer and Bejou (1995) found that gender of the spokesperson influenced the actual behaviors between salesperson and consumer. Also, Woodside and Davenport (1974) and Caballero, Lumpkin and Madden (1989) all found that similarity of sex between

spokesperson and consumer positively affected purchase intentions. A significant amount of literature on this subject deals with face to face encounters between a salesperson and a possible customer. The current research is interested in the print advertising impact of such encounters, which does not contain the verbal information found in a face to face sales encounter. However, it is expected that same consumer perceptions would emerge from a print advertisement. Thus the following is suggested.

H4: A match between sex of spokesperson in a retail print advertisement and sex of the consumer viewing the advertisement will result in the consumer having more positive intentions than if there is a mismatch between the sex of the spokesperson in a retail print advertisement and the sex of the consumer viewing the advertisement.

Past research has shown that subjects wearing eyeglasses are perceived as being more intelligent than subjects who do not wear eyeglasses (Thornton 1944, Manz and Lueck 1968, Argyle and McHenry 1971). Later studies also confirm that both male and female subjects are perceived as being more intelligent when wearing eyeglasses

whether on video (Boshier 1975) or through computer-generated pictures (Terry and Krantz 1993). Harris (1991) found that, generally, subjects wearing glasses were perceived as more intelligence and intense than subjects not wearing glasses while both men and women with glasses were viewed as being more masculine or more feminine respectively. Pavelchak (1991) found that consumers expect computer spokespersons to be typically male, intelligent, knowledgeable, and to wear glasses. Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered:

H5: Male spokespersons in advertising who wear eyeglasses are perceived as being more expert than male spokespersons featured in the advertisement who do not wear eyeglasses.

H6: Female spokespersons in advertising who wear eyeglasses are perceived as being more expert than female spokespersons featured in the advertisement who do not wear eyeglasses.

Earlier studies found that in general spokespersons who wore glasses were perceived as being less attractive (Berk 1963, Knoll 1978). However, Terry (1989) found that

male subjects were rated as being more attractive when wearing eyeglasses than male subjects not wearing eyeglasses, while female subjects were rated as less attractive when wearing glasses than female subjects not wearing glasses. Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered:

H7: Female spokespersons who wear eyeglasses are perceived as being less attractive than male spokespersons who wear glasses.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODS

The research design for this study will consist of three factors with two levels per factor, a basic 2x2x2 design. The independent variables are sex of spokesperson in the print advertisement (male or female), eyeglasses worn or not worn by the salesperson, and the product category featured in the print advertisement (negatively or positively viewed). Table 3.1 below summarizes the eight different cells that result from this design.

Table 3.1: Summary of Research Design

Cell Number	Sex of Spokesperson	Wearing Eyeglasses	Product Category
1	Male	Yes	Positive
2	Male	Yes	Negative
3	Male	No	Positive
4	Male	No	Negative
5	Female	Yes	Positive
6	Female	Yes	Negative
7	Female	No	Positive
8	Female	No	Negative

Print advertisements were created in which the independent variables could be altered easily for the different levels of each factor. A further description of each of the variables and their factors follow.

The Sex of the Spokesperson

The sex of the spokesperson will be clear through the use of a photograph of either a male or a female salesperson. The development of personal stereotypes with regards to a person's sex has been a topic of academic study in both the field of psychology and marketing. Research by Pavelchak (1991) and Babin, Boles and Darden (1995) found that the typical spokesperson for the product categories of personal computer and used automobiles tended to be male, rather than female. A confound check to ensure equal physical attractiveness of each of the spokespersons was conducted and will be discussed in the confound check section of this chapter.

Presence of Eyeglasses

The presence of eyeglasses would be altered in each advertisement by a photograph of either a male spokesperson wearing eyeglasses or a female spokesperson wearing

eyeglasses. The same model is used in each respective photograph; one photograph shows the model wearing glasses and one shows the model without glasses. Over 135 million people in the U.S. need some form of vision correction; approximately 80% of these people wear eyeglasses and about 20% wear contact lenses (Ocular Sciences 1999). Academic studies have been conducted as early as the 1940s (Thorton 1944) in which the impact of wearing eyeglasses has been studied from a psychological or social context, but this researcher was not able to find any major academic research which dealt with the attitudes towards a salesperson or spokesperson who wore eyeglasses. It is interesting that both men and women wearing eyeglasses are perceived as being more intelligent, whether they in reality are or not, than when the man or woman does not wear eyeglasses (Boshier 1975). In an advertisement, it would be interesting to discover whether that perception of intelligence translates into the consumer possessing better attitudes about the advertisement and the product being advertised.

Product Category

The product categories of used automobiles and personal computers were chosen as exemplars for the negatively viewed product category (used automobile) and the positively viewed category (personal computers). These exemplars were also chosen due to existing literature that offered clear stereotype descriptions of each spokesperson. In regards to characteristics that could be tested using a print advertisement, used automobile spokespersons were stereotyped as being male and not wearing glasses while personal computer spokespersons were stereotyped as being male and wearing glasses (Pavelchak 1991). Since one of the other independent variables was whether the spokesperson in the advertisement was wearing glasses, it was essential to select product categories in which that variable could be utilized. The product category was altered in each advertisement by changing the business name slightly. A manipulation check for the product category was conducted and will be discussed in the manipulation check section of this chapter.

Confound Check

To ensure that male and female spokespersons were perceived as equally attractive a confound check was conducted. The physical attractiveness component of Ohanian's (1990) scale for source credibility was used. Eighty-six test subjects viewed either the male or female spokesperson and completed Ohanian's three-part scale. Results (shown in Table 3.2) indicated that the test subjects perceived the male and female spokesperson as equally attractive ($F=.476$, $p=.492$). Thus it was believed that attractiveness of the spokesperson was controlled and would not interfere with the results. Table 3.2 below summarizes the pretest results.

Table 3.2: Pretest Results for Physical Attractiveness

Sex of Spokesperson	Mean
Male	54.90
Female	55.44
$(F=.476, p=.492), n=86$	

Manipulation Checks

The perception of product categories was checked using Pavelchak's (1991) research: the characteristics of knowledgeable, friendliness, pushy, and trustworthiness were used by Pavelchak to validate the typicality and perception of a product category. Both personal computers and used automobiles were found to be typical of their respective product categories in the pretest. Specifically, a sample of 52 respondents concluded that a used car spokesperson was perceived to be less knowledgeable, more friendly, more pushy and less trustworthy than a personal computer spokesperson. These results match Pavelchak's study and indicate that consumers have strongly held beliefs about the two categories on which to base their attitudes and stereotypes. In short, personal computers are a positively viewed product category and used automobiles are a negatively viewed product category. Table 3.3 below summarizes the results of the pretest.

Table 3.3: Results of Product Category Pretest (Means)

Category	Knowledgeable	Friendly	Pushy	Trustworthy
Personal Computer	3.26	3.35	3.48	4.21
Used Automobile	3.84	2.89	3.37	5.21
N=52	("1"= very,	"7"=not very)		

As discussed, the categories of personal computers and used automobiles were chosen based on two key issues: (1) existing literature identified characteristics of a typical spokesperson and (2) the research design required a positive and negatively viewed product category. Pretest results indicate that personal computers are significantly viewed more positively (7.3) than used automobiles (4.61, $F=28.78$, $p=000$) as product categories, indicating that personal computers and used automobiles can be used as exemplars for negatively viewed and positively viewed product categories.

Table 3.4: Positive and Negative Product Category Results

Product Category	N	Mean
Used Automobiles	18	4.61
Personal Computers	20	7.30
(F=28.782,p=.000) n= 38		

Dependent Variables

Multiple dependent measures will be used as measures of advertising effectiveness. The dependent variables that will be used are attitude toward the advertisement, attitude toward the salesperson (spokesperson), attitude toward the product, and purchase intentions. In addition, the three parts (physical attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise) of Ohanian's 1990 scale will be used in this research. (For completeness sake, the physical attractiveness section of the scale will be included.) Finally, cognitive responses will be collected and subsequently calculated.

Table 3.5 summarizes each measure, reports its Cronbach's alpha reliability measure (if available or applicable), and the developer or previous user of the

scale. The actual Cronbach's alphas obtained by this study will be reported in chapter four with the statistical results. No new scales were developed for this study; each scale below has been tested in previous research. Specific information on each scale follows Table 3.5.

Table 3.5- Measurement Scales

Name of Scale	Description of Scale (Cronbach's Alpha)	Developer of Scale
Source Credibility	17, 7 point bipolar items (.80)	Ohanian (1990)
Attitude Toward the Advertisement	10 item, 7 point bipolar items	Baker and Churchill (1977)
Attitude Toward the Salesperson	Four, 7 point bipolar items (.85)	Yi (1990)
Attitude Toward the Product	Modified attitude toward the brand with three, 7 point bipolar items (.93)	Muehling, Laczniak and Stoltman (1991)
Cognitive Responses	Open-ended questions measuring the number and type of cognitive responses (N/A)	Stafford and Day (1994), Muehling, Laczniak and Stoltman (1991)
Purchase Intentions	Three, 7 point scale items (.89)	Yi (1990)
Involvement (covariate)	Reduced scale (.91 to .95)	Zaichkowsky (1994)

Attitude Toward the Salesperson (spokesperson) is a modified attitude toward the advertisement scale with four,

seven-point bipolar items (Yi 1990, $\alpha=.85$). The anchors for the items are good-bad, interesting-not interesting, irritating-not irritating, and like-dislike.

Attitude Toward the Product is a modified Attitude Toward the Brand scale with three, seven-point bipolar items (Muehling, Laczniak, and Stoltman 1991, $\alpha=.93$). The anchors for the items are: good-bad, pleasant-unpleasant, and like-dislike.

Purchase Intention contains three, seven-point bipolar items (Yi 1990, $\alpha=.89$). The anchors for the items are likely-unlikely, possible-impossible and probable-improbable.

Source Credibility is a three component scale containing seventeen, seven-point bipolar items (Ohanian 1990, $\alpha=.80$). The anchors for the items are unattractive-attractive, dependable-undependable, not an expert-expert, classy-not classy, honest-not honest, experienced-inexperienced, handsome-ugly, unreliable-reliable, knowledgeable-unknowledgeable, elegant-plain, insincere-sincere, qualified-unqualified, sexy-not sexy, trustworthy-untrustworthy, unskilled-skilled, not likable-likable, and similar to me-not similar to me.

Attitude Toward the Advertisement contains ten, seven-point Likert items (Baker and Churchill 1977). The statements used are the ad is appealing; the ad is eye-catching; the ad is impressive; if I needed an X, I would actively seek out this retailer; the ad is believable; the ad is clear; if I needed a X, I would patronize this retailer; the ad is attractive; the ad is informative; and if I needed a x, I would like to try this retailer.

Cognitive Responses are open ended responses used by Stafford and Day (1994), Muehling, Laczniak and Stoltman (1991), and Muehling, Laczniak and Andrews (1993) measuring number and type of cognitive responses.

Covariate

Involvement is the reduced version which contains ten, seven-point bipolar items (Zaichkowsky 1994, $\alpha = .91$ to $.95$). The anchors for the items are important-unimportant, involving-uninvolving, irrelevant-relevant, means a lot to me-means nothing to me, valuable-worthless, boring-interesting, exciting-unexciting, appealing-unappealing, fascinating-mundane, and not needed-needed.

Stimuli Development

As discussed earlier in this chapter, manipulation and confounding checks were conducted on both the physical attractiveness of the salesperson and the perception of the product categories. Thus, the spokespersons that will be used in the print advertisement are the same age, dressed in the same attire (simple black professional suit), and are perceived to have the same level of physical attractiveness. The same spokespersons are used wearing eyeglasses and not wearing eyeglasses. The business name of "MotorWorld" was used for the used automotive dealership while "CompWorld" was used for the personal computer reseller. None of these business names exist in this area. To avoid any confounding, the basic advertisement was the same for each cell; that is, the typeface, layout and format are identical.

Sample

The sample will be gathered from local groups who have agreed to let the researcher administer the survey; this will allow for a representative sampling of age ranges in the area. The local groups will be both civic and religious nature. Each subject will be randomly assigned to

one of the eight cells. The researcher is targeting a sample size of 160 subjects, or about 20 per cell, which is an ample number for the statistical measures that will be used in the study.

Task

After a random assignment to one of the eight cells, subjects will be told to give their personal and honest opinion about the advertisements. Although audiences generally can control the amount of time and number of times they view a print advertisement, subjects will not be allowed to control those variables in this study. Since the number of cognitive responses are being measured in the survey, subjects will be allowed 60 seconds to view the advertisement. After viewing the advertisement, they will be given three minutes to list their cognitive responses. They will then be allowed to finish the questionnaire at their own pace.

Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire will be administered in group settings by the researcher. As stated each person will have a set amount of time (60 seconds) to view the advertisement

so that subjects do not view the advertisements for different time periods. The questionnaire will be standardized; the only items that will be different are the type of business being tested and the sex of the spokesperson in the advertisement. Along with the scales previously discussed, the questionnaire also contains questions about the respondent's demographics (ex. age, education, income, etc.). Please see Appendix A for the pretests used in the research and Appendix B for the actual questionnaire that will be used in the study.

Statistical Analysis

As noted, the research design for this study will be a between subjects 2x2x2 design. The independent variables are sex of salesperson, the presence of eyeglasses, and the positive or negative product category. Descriptive statistics will be calculated first in order to check for errors and to obtain an overall feel of the data. A 2x2x2 multiple analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) will be used along with analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to perform univariate F-tests for each dependent measure. Also, Cronbach's alpha and confirmatory factor analysis will be

utilized to ensure satisfactory levels of reliability and validity.

Limitations of the Study

As with many advertising experiments, subjects will view the advertisement without any programming or editorial content that normally accompanies print or televised advertising. Therefore, it is possible that subject will pay more attention to the advertisements used in the study than they would have with normal advertisements seen in a magazine or newspaper. However, this potential problem notwithstanding, forced exposure to advertisements absent of surrounding content is a standard advertising experimental tool used to avoid possible confounding effects (Norris and Colman 1992, Page, Thorson and Heide 1990).

Another limitation relates to the product categories used in the study. While the categories (personal computer and used automobile) were selected based on existing research on typical product categories and spokesperson stereotypes, it is possible that different product categories could yield different results. The use of civic and religious groups as part of the convenience sample

could also produce a sample with more conservative views than the general US population. However, since the study does not deal with any social issues the advertisements do not contain any visual or verbal messages that could be controversial, the convenience sample is not expected to bias the results.

Conclusion

This chapter concludes the discussion of the research design of this study. This chapter discusses the research questions along with the research hypotheses, then outlines the specifics of how the data would be gathered. The statistical analyses that will be used are discussed along with the limitations of the study. Chapters four and five of the dissertation will discuss the actual results of the proposal.

CHAPTER IV

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the research findings from the data collection. Issues of reliability and validity, confound checks, and finally, a statistical analysis of the experiment will be addressed.

Reliability and Validity

In Table 4.1, the reliabilities (Cronbach's Alpha) of the scales used in the research are reported. The scales measuring involvement, attitude toward the advertisement, attitude toward the product, and purchase intentions all reported Cronbach alpha scores of over .90; while the scales measuring source credibility and attitude toward the salesperson all reported Cronbach alpha scores of over .80. Factor analysis was used for validity testing and the factor loadings are reported in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.1: Cronbach's Alpha

Scale	Reliability
Involvement	.9124
Source Credibility	.8975
Physical Attractiveness	.8686
Trust	.8602
Expertise	.8633
Attitude Toward Salesperson	.8968
Attitude Toward Product	.9372
Purchase Intentions	.9209
Attitude Toward Ad	.9051

Table 4.2: Factor Loadings for Variables

Source Credibility	Loadings	Involvement	Loadings	Attitude toward Advertise- ment	Loadings
SC1	.545	Z1	.780	A _{ad} 1	.772
SC2	.74	Z2	.747	A _{ad} 2	.731
SC3	.671	Z3	.574	A _{ad} 3	.767
SC4	.741	Z4	.819	A _{ad} 4	.819
SC5	.735	Z5	.802	A _{ad} 5	.728
SC6	.658	Z6	.734	A _{ad} 6	.561
SC7	.520	Z7	.799	A _{ad} 7	.704
SC8	.685	Z8	.794	A _{ad} 8	.812
SC9	.659	Z9	.795	A _{ad} 9	.659
SC10	.537	Z10	.664	A _{ad} 10	.803
SC11	.656				
SC12	.691				
SC13	.362				
SC14	.791				
SC15	.707				
Attitude toward Product	Loadings	Purchase Intentions	Loadings	Attitude toward Salesperson	Loadings
Ap1	.957	PI1	.943	As1	.883
Ap2	.940	PI2	.891	As2	.856
Ap3	.931	PI3	.954	As3	.840
				As4	.910

Confound Tests

As in the pretest, the physical attractiveness measure (Ohanian's Source Credibility scale, 1990) was utilized to measure perceived levels of attractiveness for the spokesperson in the advertisement. It is interesting to note that product category did have an impact on perceived attractiveness. When controlled for product category, no statistical significance was found between male and female spokespersons.

Table 4.3: Confound Checks for Physical Attractiveness

Cells	t value	Significance
Male salesperson (personal computers and used automobiles) versus female salesperson (personal computers and used automobiles)	1.703	.092
Male salesperson (personal computers) versus female salesperson (personal computers)	1.176	.246
Male salesperson (used automobiles) versus female salesperson (used automobiles)	1.247	.218

Model Testing

A 2 x 2 x 2 MANOVA was conducted as part of the statistical analysis. The independent variables were: sex of spokesperson in advertisement, whether or not the

spokesperson wore glasses, and either a positive or negative product category. The dependent variables used in the analysis were: attitude toward the advertisement, attitude toward the salesperson (spokesperson), attitude toward the product, purchase intentions, and both the perceived level of trust and expertise of the spokesperson. Perceived level of trust and expertise were added to the analysis due to statistically significant results regarding those variables and one of the independent variables (sex of salesperson). A $2 \times 2 \times 2$ MANCOVA was run with involvement as a covariate; however, findings indicated that involvement was highly correlated with product category and it was removed from the analysis. Table 4.4 contains the results from the MANOVA procedure; only main effects were significant.

Table 4.4: MANOVA Procedure

Effect	Wilks' Lambda Value	F	P value
Product	.928	2.411	.029
Glasses	.921	2.674	.016
Gender	.895	3.641	.002
Product * Glasses	.983	.547	.772
Product * Gender	.982	.567	.756
Glasses * Gender	.981	.590	.738
Product * Glasses * Gender	.964	1.156	.332

While there were no interaction effects that were statistically significant, univariate ANOVAs conducted with each of the dependent variables provided some interesting results. All other univariate tests found statistical significance for a main or interaction effect. Both the model and main effect of product were statistically significant for attitude toward the product. For attitude toward the salesperson (spokesperson), the model and the main effect of glasses were statistically significant. Subjects possessed a more positive attitude toward a salesperson (spokesperson) who did not wear glasses than toward a salesperson who did wear glasses ($t = 2.414$, $p = .017$).

For the variable of trust, the model and the main effect of gender was statically significant. On the whole, male spokespersons were also found to be less trustworthy than female spokesperson (t = 3.955, p = .000). Finally for the variable of expertise, the model, the main effect of gender and the interaction effect of product and glasses were statistically significant. Male spokespersons were also perceived to be less expert than the female spokespersons (t = 2.390, p = .01). Tables 4.5 - 4.10 below provide the specific statistics of the univariate tests.

Table 4.5: ANOVA (Attitude toward Advertisement)

Source	SS	Mean Square	F	P
Model ($R^2=.906$)	2707.88	33848.6	240.915	.000
Product	80.22	80.22	.571	.451
Glasses	305.704	305.704	2.176	.142
Gender	62.098	62.098	.442	.507
Product * Glasses	4.094	4.094	.029	.865
Product * Gender	1.046	1.046	.007	.931
Glasses * Gender	15.330	15.330	.109	.742
Product * Glasses * Gender	5.536	5.536	.039	.843
Error	26835	140.5		
Total	267624			

Table 4.6: ANOVA (Attitude Toward the Product)

Source	SS	Mean Square	F	P
Model ($R^2=.895$)	24132	3016	212.1	.000
Product	178.776	178.776	12.57	.000
Glasses	17.271	17.271	1.214	.272
Gender	14.627	14.627	1.028	.312
Product * Glasses	9.373	9.373	.007	.935
Product * Gender	26.707	26.707	1.878	.172
Glasses * Gender	14.545	14.545	1.023	.313
Product * Glasses * Gender	2.494	2.494	.175	.676
Error	2716	14.22		
Total	26849			

Table 4.7: ANOVA (Attitude Toward the Salesperson)

Source	SS	Mean Square	F	P
Model ($R^2=.913$)	45539.1	5692.3	260.984	.000
Product	40.230	40.230	1.844	.176
Glasses	101.889	101.889	4.671	.032
Gender	52.653	52.653	2.414	.122
Product * Glasses	8.23	8.23	.377	.54
Product * Gender	1.323	1.323	.061	.806
Glasses * Gender	6.201	6.201	.284	.595
Product * Glasses * Gender	5.174	5.174	.002	.961
Error	4165	21.811		
Total	49705			

Table 4.8: ANOVA (Purchase Intentions)

Source	SS	Mean Square	F	P
Model ($R^2=.872$)	28934.1	3616.76	170.4	.000
Product	4.474	4.474	.211	.647
Glasses	7.153	7.153	.003	.954
Gender	6.736	6.736	.317	.574
Product * Glasses	5.2	5.2	.245	.621
Product * Gender	3.133	3.133	.001	.969
Glasses * Gender	16.523	16.523	.778	.379
Product * Glasses * Gender	5.108	5.108	.241	.624
Error	4053	21.225		
Total	32988			

Table 4.9: ANOVA (Trust)

Source	SS	Mean Square	F	P
Model ($R^2=.935$)	64939	8117.5	358.6	.000
Product	7.463	7.463	.330	.567
Glasses	2.854	2.854	.126.	.723
Gender	349.74	349.74	15.451	.001
Product * Glasses	8.733	8.733	.386	.535
Product * Gender	4.47	4.47	.197	.657
Glasses * Gender	46.2	46.2	2.041	.155
Product * Glasses * Gender	13.468	13.468	.595	.441
Error	4323	22.63		
Total	69263			

Table 4.10: ANOVA (Expertise)

Source	SS	Mean Square	F	P
Model ($R^2=.942$)	70547	8818.5	406.83	.000
Product	33.804	33.804	1.56	.213
Glasses	4.587	4.587	.002	.963
Gender	123.779	123.779	5.7	.018
Product * Glasses	58.954	58.954	2.72	.10
Product * Gender	10.454	10.454	.482	.488
Glasses * Gender	4.15	4.15	.191	.662
Product * Glasses * Gender	37.136	37.136	1.713	.192
Error	4140	21.67		
Total	74688			

Hypotheses Testing

The results for the seven research hypotheses are discussed in this section.

H1: A stereotype mismatch between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a retail print advertisement will result in a higher number of cognitive responses than a stereotype match between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a retail print advertisement.

Hypothesis H1 is not supported. There were a higher number of cognitive responses for the stereotype matches than the stereotype mismatches. The stereotype match (male, glasses, pc) versus the stereotype mismatch (female, no glasses, pc) showed a statistically significant difference

($t = 2.330$, $p = .012$) while the stereotype match (male, no glasses, auto) versus stereotype mismatch (female, glasses, auto) did not show a statistically significant difference ($t = .719$, $p = .238$). Interestingly enough, the stereotype match (male, glasses, pc) received a higher number of negative cognitive responses than the stereotype mismatch (female, no glasses, pc), which also was statistically significant ($t = 2.243$, $p = .029$).

Table 4.11: Statistics for Hypothesis One

Cell	Mean Number of Cognitive Responses	Statistic
Stereotype match (male, glasses, pc) vs. stereotype mismatch (female, no glasses, pc)	4.037 2.9615	$T = 2.330$, $p = .012$
Stereotype match (male, no glasses, auto) vs. stereotype mismatch (female, glasses, auto)	4.2273 3.80	$T = .719$, $p = .238$

H2: A stereotype match between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a retail print advertisement for a positively viewed product category (personal computers) will result in more positive attitudinal

judgments than a stereotype match between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a negatively viewed product category (used automobiles).

Hypothesis H2 is not supported. There was no statistical difference in the number of positive cognitive responses between the stereotype match for a positive category and the stereotype for a negative category ($t = -.012$, $p = .5045$). However, subjects did possess a more positive attitude toward the product with a stereotype match (positive product category) than stereotype match (negative product category) ($t = -1.975$, $p = .027$).

Table 4.12: Statistics for Hypothesis Two

Cell	Mean	Statistic
Positive Cognitive Responses: Stereotype match (positive category) vs. stereotype match (negative category)	1.18 1.19	$T = -.012$, $p = .5045$
Attitude Toward Product: Stereotype match (positive category) vs. stereotype match (negative category)	9.5926 11.6818 ("1" = very positive, "7" = very negative)	$T = -1.975$ $p = .027$

H3: A stereotype mismatch between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson in a retail print advertisement for a negatively viewed product category (used automobiles) will result in more positive attitudinal judgments than a stereotype match between consumer perceptions and a spokesperson for a positively viewed product category (personal computers).

Hypothesis H3 is not supported. There was no statistically significant difference between the number of positive cognitive responses for a stereotype mismatch than for a stereotype match in the product categories ($t = -.938$, $p = .8235$) although the data seems to indicate that that stereotype match has a slightly higher number of cognitive responses than the stereotype mismatch.

Table 4.13: Statistics for Hypothesis Three

Cell	Mean (Number of Positive Cognitive Responses)	Statistic
Stereotype mismatch (female, glasses, auto) vs. stereotype match (male, glasses, pc)	0.76 1.19	$T = -.938$, $P = .8235$

Table 4.14: Additional Cognitive Response Data

Cell	Mean	Statistic
No. of Cognitive Responses: Stereotype mismatch (female, no glasses, pc) vs. stereotype match (male, glasses, pc)	2.8615 4.0370	$T = 2.334,$ $P = .024$
No. of Negative Cognitive Responses: Stereotype mismatch (female, no glasses, pc) vs. stereotype match (male, glasses, pc)	1.00 1.8519	$T = 2.432,$ $P = .029$

H4: A match between sex of spokesperson in a retail print advertisement and sex of the consumer viewing the advertisement will result in the consumer having more positive intentions than if there is a mismatch between the sex of the spokesperson in a retail print advertisement and the sex of the consumer viewing the advertisement.

Hypothesis H4 is generally supported by the data; however there is not a statistically significant difference in purchase intentions based on whether there is a match or not a match between sex of spokesperson and sex of consumer

viewing the advertisement ($t = -.724$, $p = .47$). There does seem to be differences by gender in regard to the number of positive cognitive responses, although it does not translate into more positive purchase intentions.

Table 4.15: Statistics for Hypothesis Four

Cells	Purchase Intentions	Statistic
Match gender	11.833	$T = -.724$, $p = .235$
Does not match gender	12.3039	
Match gender (male)	12.6522	$T = .364$, $p = .358$
Does not match gender (male)	12.2429	
Match gender (female)	11.5205	$T = -1.281$, $P = .102$
Does not match gender (female)	12.7273 ("1" = positive purchase intentions, "7"= negative purchase intentions)	

Table 4.16: Matching Gender and Cognitive Responses

Cells	Mean (Number of Positive Cognitive Responses)	Statistic
Match gender (male)	1.7619	T = 1.839, P = .069
Does not match gender (male)	1.0580	
Match gender (female)	1.3562	T = 1.796, P = .076
Does not match gender (female)	.9091	

H5: Male spokespersons in advertising who wear eyeglasses are perceived as being more expert than male spokespersons featured in the advertisement who do not wear eyeglasses.

Hypothesis H5 is not supported. Although male spokespersons with glasses are slightly perceived as more expert than male salesperson without glasses, it is not statistically significant ($t = 1.197$, $p = .844$).

Table 4.17: Statistics for Hypothesis Five

Cell	Mean (Expertise)	Statistic
Male (with glasses)	19.5882	T = -.197, P = .844
Male (without glasses)	19.7857 ("1" = more expert, "7" = less expert)	

H6: Female spokespersons in advertising who wear eyeglasses are perceived as being more expert than female spokespersons featured in the advertisement who do not wear eyeglasses.

Hypothesis H6 is not supported. Although female spokespersons with glasses are slightly perceived as more expert than female salesperson without glasses, it is not statistically significant ($t = .309$, $p = .758$).

Table 4.18: Statistics for Hypothesis Six

Cell	Mean (Expertise)	Statistic
Female (with glasses)	18.2400	$T = .309$, $P = .758$
Female (without glasses)	17.9649 ("1" = more expert, "7" = less expert)	

H7: Female spokespersons who wear eyeglasses are perceived as being less attractive than male spokespersons who wear glasses.

Hypothesis H7 was not supported. In fact, the opposite of what was hypothesized occurred. Female salespersons with glasses were found to be more physically attractive than male salesperson with glasses ($t = .1.948$, $prob. = .068$). However, female salespersons with glasses were found to be

more trustworthy than male salespersons with glasses
($t=1.836$, $p = .069$).

Table 4.19: Statistics for Hypothesis Seven

Cell	Mean (Physical Attractiveness)	Statistic
Female (with glasses)	21.72	$T = 1.848$, $P = .068$
Male (with glasses)	23.72 ("1" = more attractive, "7" = less attractive)	

Table 4.20: Trustworthiness of Salespersons

Cell	Mean (Trustworthiness)	Statistic
Female (with glasses)	17.18	$T = 1.836$, $p = .069$
Male (with glasses)	18.88 ("1" = more trustworthy, "7" = less trustworthy)	

Although only one of the seven research hypotheses was supported; two of the research hypotheses were statistically significant in the opposite direction of what was hypothesized. Chapter 5 will summarize the statistical findings of this chapter and discuss the nature of the findings. The limitations and implications of the research and future research areas will also be discussed.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research sought to examine the characteristics that impact how consumers view print advertisement that include a spokesperson. Specifically, it was designed to examine how consumers view and process spokesperson and product category information from advertisements and how it impacts their attitudes. A considerable amount of the literature concerning the spokesperson or salesperson has concentrated on the consumer perspective of meeting and personally interacting with a person. This research attempted to apply research on spokespersons using a print advertisement perspective. The perspective focused on how the consumer views the spokesperson from a two dimensional, visual-only perspective. Although there had been some early work in the area of salesperson and spokesperson stereotypes (Thompson 1972, Darden and French 1971), the topic of how salesperson stereotypes impact consumer attitudes and cognitive responses has remained an area in need of more academic research (Reingen and Kerman 1993).

This experiment was designed to test the effects of a negatively or positively viewed product category, the impact of eyeglasses being worn by a spokesperson, and the influence of the spokesperson's gender on the consumers' attitudes toward the advertisement, spokesperson, product, and purchase intentions. Literature (Pavelchak 1991, Babin, Boles and Darden 1995) had identified two stereotypes of spokesperson that were to be used in the research: a typical personal computer spokesperson was identified as being male and wearing glasses and a typical used automobile salesperson was identified as being male and not wearing glasses. Thus, the research was also able to compare attitudes by consumers based on whether they were exposed to a stereotypical spokesperson or to a nonstereotypical spokesperson.

Research found that the product category, whether or not the spokesperson wore glasses, and the gender of the spokesperson did in fact have a significant impact on the dependent variables of attitude toward the advertisement, attitude toward the salesperson (spokesperson), attitude toward the product, purchase intentions, and perceived levels of trust and expertise of the spokesperson. However, there were no interactions between the independent

variables. Most surprising was the lack of interaction between the sex of the spokesperson and whether eyeglasses were worn by the spokesperson; psychological literature (Terry 1989, Harris 1991) had indicated that a possible interaction effect might be found.

The expectation was that a consumer would view a nonstereotypical spokesperson with a different set of reactions than a stereotypical spokesperson. It was hypothesized that a consumer would have not only more cognitive responses, but more positive cognitive responses when the spokesperson was atypical versus when the spokesperson was typical. However, results indicate that the exact opposite occurred in most instances. A stereotype match in the both the personal computer category and the used automobile category had a higher number of cognitive responses than the stereotype mismatch. The stereotype match in general did have more negative cognitive responses than the stereotype mismatch, possibly indicating the general negative stereotype of a salesperson (even when used as a spokesperson in an advertisement) did translate into more negative views of the spokesperson in this print advertisement.

Stereotypes also seemed to have little effect on the higher order attitudinal judgments (for example, attitude toward the spokesperson, purchase intentions) of the consumer; their effect was limited to the lower order measures (for example, number and type of cognitive responses). This would indicate that perhaps stereotypes do operate at a lower cognitive level, but other more relevant attitudinal measures have more impact on consumer perceptions of a product and/or their purchase intentions.

Furthermore, this lower order effect was also found in regard to gender as well. A match between the sex of the spokesperson in the advertisement and the sex of the consumer viewing the advertisement resulted in more positive cognitive responses. This did not translate into a statistical significance regarding purchase intentions or any of the other dependent variables.

Surprisingly, it was also found that wearing glasses did not translate into a person being perceived as more expert than if the person did not wear glasses. This is contrary to the literature (Manz and Lueck 1968, Boshier 1975, Harris 1991) and to many widely held notions of intelligence and appearance. Fashion models have for many

years worn glasses without any lenses on photoshoots in order to appear more intelligent to the viewer.

While only one of the hypothesized relationships of the research was found to be supported; two of the research hypotheses regarding stereotypes were statistically significant in the opposite direction. There are some interesting conclusions that can be drawn from these results. The spokesperson stereotypes (male, with glasses, personal computer and male, without glasses, used automobiles) were chosen due to existing literature (Pavelchak 1991) that pointed to the proven existence of each of the stereotypes. Much of the literature in this area is dated and the research suggests that the stereotypes in the technology industry may be changing much faster than academic literature suggests (Strober and Arnold 1987, Thottam 2001, Sunny 2000, Eisenberg 2000). Pavelchak's research was published in 1991, it would be interesting to see if the same results apply today, when monumental changes in technology have occurred over the last decade. Today, it is not unusual to see either a female salesperson or a female executive officer in the technology industry, especially for computer firms. The changes in technological stereotypes would certainly impact

the experimental variables in the study and cloud the results in regards to any data regarding the computer product category.

Research in the area of gender dominated products has indicated that subjects in general do have more positive perceptions when there is a match between the type of product (whether it is more male dominant or female dominant) and the sex of the spokesperson in the advertisement (Whipple and Courtney 1985); however there is also research that indicates that the use of the opposite sex can be more positive than the use of the same sex (Debevec and Iyer 1985, Whipple and Courtney 1980). The dissertation research found that the match-up of sex of salesperson in the advertisement and sex of respondent viewing the advertisement was not statistically significant. It would be of interest in future research to examine the issue in regard to male or female dominant product categories instead of positive or negative product categories. While research indicates the automotive category remains male dominant (Stafford 1998), it would be interesting to discover whether computers are considered more male or female dominant and the extent of the gender domination.

A major limitation of the research, which may have impacted the results of the experiment, is the use of forced exposure. Forced exposure is traditionally used in advertising research; in this instance subjects were allowed one minute to view the advertisement and three minutes to write down their cognitive responses to the advertisement. Since the research dealt with stereotypes and how consumers react to nonstereotypical and stereotypical salespersons in the advertisement, subjects may have been forced to view the advertisement much longer than they might have necessarily viewed the advertisement. Literature suggests that when consumers view anything or anyone in an advertisement that they do not expect to be there, the consumers tend to pay more attention to the advertisement. Thus, when the consumer views a person who is nonstereotypical in the advertisement, they would, according to theory, view it longer and have more cognitive processing than if it were an advertisement which was typical or what they expected. Thus, forcing subjects to view the advertisement the same amount of time could have caused a major effect to the data collection.

Another limitation of the research deals specifically with changing stereotypes. It is quite possible the

stereotypical view of a computer salesperson or spokesperson being male and wearing glasses is not as widely held as it once was a decade ago. This could impact the results of the experiment since the stereotypes for the personal computer category may not be as widely and as strongly held as the stereotypes for the used automobile industry.

Another limitation of the study is the lack of information on eyeglasses. This research shows that the match of gender between a spokesperson and the consumer viewing the advertisement had an effect on cognitive responses. Based on these results the academic literature of psychological similarity, future research could examine the relationships to see if a person who wears glasses (or even contact lenses) has a more positive cognitive responses and attitudes toward a spokesperson who wears glasses than a spokesperson who does not wear glasses. However, no data was collected for this study in regard to whether the respondent did or did not wear glasses.

Due to the fact that the data was gathered in Northeast Texas region, there could be differences between the sample and a general sample of all U.S. consumers. While neither of the product categories (used automobiles

or personal computers) are regional centric products (i.e. like tortillas or snow skis), certainly some geographic biases could be contained in the data.

Further research in the area of stereotypes and salespersons in advertisements needs to be conducted to determine any changes that have occurred in stereotype perceptions and how any of those changes impact consumer reactions to salespersons and advertisements that feature salespersons. Most of the existing literature used in the research in regard to the wearing of eyeglasses was not based in marketing or sales research, it was based on psychological studies of how children and adults view people who wear glasses. Further research in this area needs to be conducted in regard to how physical appearances, especially whether or not the salesperson wears glasses, impact consumer perceptions of salespersons or spokespersons in advertisements. Furthermore, research examining the differences between types of advertisements that use a spokesperson would also be of interest. Specifically, it would be useful to know the differences or similarities between image only advertisements and promotionally geared advertisements, both with spokespersons in the advertisements.

APPENDIX A

1. Answer the following questions based on your opinions of the person in the photograph by placing a checkmark in the appropriate section. This person is:

Attractive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unattractive	Insert
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Photo
Classy	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Not Classy	Here
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Beautiful	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Ugly	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Elegant	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Plain	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Sexy	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Not sexy	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Dependable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Undependable	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Dishonest	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Honest	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Reliable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unreliable	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Sincere	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Insincere	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Trustworthy	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Untrustworthy	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Expert	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Not an Expert	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Experienced	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Inexperienced	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Knowledgeable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unknowledgeable	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Unqualified	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	Qualified
	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	
Skilled	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	Unskilled
	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	
Credible	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	Not Credible
	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	

2. Place a checkmark in the appropriate boxes:

Sex:	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
Age:	Under 30	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over 30	<input type="checkbox"/>
School Classification:	Freshmen	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sophomore	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Junior	<input type="checkbox"/>	Senior	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you for your participation.

In your opinion, rate a typical <insert product class: personal computer or used automobile> salesperson on the following attributes. Circle the appropriate number.

Very knowledgeable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all knowledgeable

Very friendly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all friendly

Very pushy 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all pushy

Very trustworthy 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all trustworthy

Please answer the following questions. All results will remain anonymous.

1. What is your opinion of the *product category*, <insert used automobiles or personal computers here>? Check the appropriate box and then answer the following question.

- ☐ More positive than negative opinion
Then, how positive is your opinion? Check the box that applies.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Extremely Positive	Very Positive	Somewhat Positive	Slightly Positive

OR

- ☐ More negative than positive opinion
Then, how negative is your opinion? Check the box that applies.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Extremely Negative	Very Negative	Somewhat Negative	Slightly Negative

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTIONS

Please look at the following ad for a new business in town. Read the advertisement for as long as you like. After you are finished, turn the ad over and without looking back at the ad, please complete the attached questionnaire.

CompWorld

Your Source for Computers!



Joan Duncan
Salesperson

**"Come see me today
for huge savings on
all computers and
accessories!"**

 **CompWorld**

2210 Main Street • Lewisville, Texas 75029
1•800•234•7172

Questionnaire Instructions

There are several sections to this questionnaire. Each section has its own set of instructions. However, while completing this questionnaire, remember the following:

1. All responses are anonymous.
2. The questionnaire cannot be used unless every item is completed.
3. There are no right or wrong answers. Your opinions are what we want.
4. Work at a fairly high speed through the questionnaire. We really want your first impressions. These are usually the most accurate.
5. Do not read ahead into the questionnaire. Also, once you have finished a section do not turn back to a previous section. But you may work at your own pace throughout the questionnaire.
6. When you respond to a series of scales, please use the following guide and examples:

If you feel that your opinion is very closely related to one end of the scale or the other, you should place your 'X' as follows:

This is good X _____ This is bad.
or
This is good _____ X This is bad.

If you feel that your opinion is closely related to one end of the scale or the other (but not extremely), you should place your 'X' as follows:

This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.
or
This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.

If you feel that your opinion is slightly related to one end of the scale or the other (but not really neutral), you should place your 'X' as follows:

This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.
or
This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.

If you feel that your opinion is neutral, then you should place your 'X' as follows:

This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.

IMPORTANT: Never put more than one 'X' on a single scale.

PART 1

INSTRUCTIONS: In the space below, please list all the thoughts, reactions, ideas, feelings, and emotions that you had while you were reading the ad. Please write down anything that went through your mind, no matter how simple, complex, relevant or irrelevant it may seem to you. There are no right or wrong responses. Remember, list all thoughts that occurred to you during the time you were looking at the advertisement. Then, please follow the instructions at the bottom of the page.

Now, please return to your list and examine each thought separately. Please classify each of your thoughts as positive (POS), negative (NEG) or neutral (NTL). Place the appropriate abbreviation POS, NEG or NTL next to your response.

PART 2

INSTRUCTIONS: Now, we need you to respond to a series of descriptive sales according to how YOU perceive a computer retailer, **in general**. Remember, please respond to **every scale** and never put more than one 'X' on a single scale. Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Remember, please fill out the following scale according to how you perceive this service in general.

1. Important ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Unimportant
2. Involving ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Uninvolving
3. Irrelevant ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Relevant
4. Means a lot to me ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Means nothing to me
5. Valuable ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Worthless
6. Boring ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Interesting
7. Exciting ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Unexciting
8. Appealing ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Unappealing
9. Fascinating ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Mundane
10. Not needed ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Needed

PART 3

INSTRUCTIONS: Next, we would like you to respond to a series of questions that indicate your feelings toward Joan Duncan, the salesperson in the advertisement you just saw. Please indicate your opinions of her by checking the appropriate place on each scale. Remember, please use one 'X' for each scale and **please respond to each and every item.**

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|
| 11. | Unattractive | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Attractive |
| 12. | Dependable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Undependable |
| 13. | Not an Expert | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Expert |
| 14. | Classy | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Not Classy |
| 15. | Honest | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Dishonest |
| 16. | Experienced | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Inexperienced |
| 17. | Beautiful | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Ugly |
| 18. | Unreliable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Reliable |
| 19. | Knowledgeable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unknowledgeable |
| 20. | Elegant | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Plain |
| 21. | Insincere | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Sincere |
| 22. | Qualified | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unqualified |
| 23. | Sexy | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Not Sexy |
| 24. | Trustworthy | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Untrustworthy |
| 25. | Unskilled | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Skilled |
| 26. | Not Likable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Likable |
| 27. | Similar to Me | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Not Similar to Me |

PART 4

INSTRUCTIONS: Here, we would like you to fill out a series of scales that examines your personal opinions of the CompWorld advertisement that you just read and Joan Duncan, the salesperson. Again, **please respond to every scale** and never put more than one 'X' mark on a single scale. Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Remember, it is your true impression we want. There are not right or wrong answers. Please respond to each of the following items, based on this question: How do you, personally, feel about Joan as a salesperson?

28. Good _____ Bad
29. Irritating _____ Not Irritating
30. Interesting _____ Not Interesting

Do you like Joan?

31. Like _____ Dislike

Now, please respond to each of the following scales by indicating your feelings toward the product that Joan sells.

32. My feelings toward the product are good. _____ My feelings toward the product are bad.
33. My feelings toward the product are pleasant. _____ My feelings toward the product are unpleasant.
34. I like the product. _____ I dislike the product.

Please answer the following questions for each of the following three items. If you were in the market for one, how likely would you be to purchase a computer from Joan?

35. It is likely. _____ It is unlikely.
36. It is possible _____ It is impossible.
37. It is probable. _____ It is improbable.

Please respond to each of the following items based on your opinion of the ad.

38. The ad is appealing.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
39. The ad is eye-catching.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
40. The ad is impressive.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
41. If I needed a computer, I would actively seek out this computer retailer.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
42. The ad is believable.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
43. The ad is clear.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
44. If I needed a computer, I would patronize this computer retailer.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
45. The ad is attractive.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
46. The ad is informative.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
47. If I needed a computer, I would like to try this computer retailer.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree

PART 5

Next, we would like you to answer some questions about yourself. As with all responses, **anonymity is assured**. You will not and cannot be individually identified.

48. What is your age? ☐ 18-25 ☐ 26-35 ☐ 36-45
 ☐ 46-55 ☐ 56-65 ☐ 65 plus
49. Which best describes the highest level of education completed by you?
- ☐ High school or Vocational/Technical School Graduate
☐ Some college
 If currently enrolled, please indicate your year
 ☐ Freshman ☐ Sophomore ☐ Junior ☐ Senior
☐ College Graduate
☐ Attended or attending Professional or Graduate School
☐ Professional or Graduate School Graduate
50. Are you: Male ☐ Female ☐
51. What is your annual household income?
- ☐ Under \$25,000 ☐ \$50,001-\$75,000 ☐ Over \$100,000
☐ \$25,001-\$50,000 ☐ \$75,001-\$100,000
52. Have you purchased a computer in the past six months? ☐ Yes ☐ No
53. If not, have you ever purchased a computer? ☐ Yes ☐ No
54. What do you think was the purpose of this study?
55. What did you like or dislike about the ad?

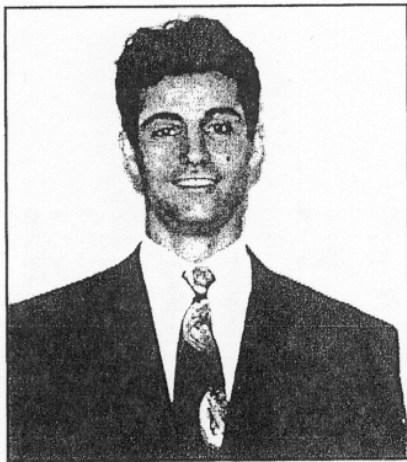
Continue your answers on the back if necessary.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please look at the following ad for a new business in town. Read the advertisement for as long as you like. After you are finished, turn the ad over and without looking back at the ad, please complete the attached questionnaire.

MotorWorld

Your Source for Used Cars!



John Duncan
Salesperson

**"Come see me
today for huge
savings on all
cars and trucks!"**

 **MotorWorld**

2210 Main Street • Lewisville, Texas 75029
1•800•234•7172

Questionnaire Instructions

There are several sections to this questionnaire. Each section has its own set of instructions. However, while completing this questionnaire, remember the following:

7. All responses are anonymous.
8. The questionnaire cannot be used unless every item is completed.
9. There are no right or wrong answers. Your opinions are what we want.
10. Work at a fairly high speed through the questionnaire. We really want your first impressions. These are usually the most accurate.
11. Do not read ahead into the questionnaire. Also, once you have finished a section do not turn back to a previous section. But you may work at your own pace throughout the questionnaire.
12. When you respond to a series of scales, please use the following guide and examples:

If you feel that your opinion is very closely related to one end of the scale or the other, you should place your 'X' as follows:

This is good X _____ This is bad.
or
This is good _____ X This is bad.

If you feel that your opinion is closely related to one end of the scale or the other (but not extremely), you should place your 'X' as follows:

This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.
or
This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.

If you feel that your opinion is slightly related to one end of the scale or the other (but not really neutral), you should place your 'X' as follows:

This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.
or
This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.

If you feel that your opinion is neutral, then you should place your 'X' as follows:

This is good _____ X _____ This is bad.

IMPORTANT: Never put more than one 'X' on a single scale.

PART 1

INSTRUCTIONS: In the space below, please list all the thoughts, reactions, ideas, feelings, and emotions that you had while you were reading the ad. Please write down anything that went through your mind, no matter how simple, complex, relevant or irrelevant it may seem to you. There are no right or wrong responses. Remember, list all thoughts that occurred to you during the time you were looking at the advertisement. Then, please follow the instructions at the bottom of the page.

Now, please return to your list and examine each thought separately.
Please classify each of your thoughts as positive (POS), negative (NEG) or neutral (NTL).
Place the appropriate abbreviation POS, NEG or NTL next to your response.

PART 2

INSTRUCTIONS: Now, we need you to respond to a series of descriptive sales according to how YOU perceive a used car dealership, **in general**. Remember, please respond to **every scale** and never put more than one 'X' on a single scale. Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Remember, please fill out the following scale according to how you perceive this service in general.

1. Important ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Unimportant
2. Involving ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Uninvolving
3. Irrelevant ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Relevant
4. Means a lot to me ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Means nothing to me
5. Valuable ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Worthless
6. Boring ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Interesting
7. Exciting ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Unexciting
8. Appealing ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Unappealing
9. Fascinating ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Mundane
10. Not needed ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Needed

PART 3

INSTRUCTIONS: Next, we would like you to respond to a series of questions that indicate your feelings toward John Duncan, the salesperson in the advertisement you just saw. Please indicate your opinions of her by checking the appropriate place on each scale. Remember, please use one 'X' for each scale and **please respond to each and every item.**

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|
| 11. | Unattractive | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Attractive |
| 12. | Dependable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Undependable |
| 13. | Not an Expert | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Expert |
| 14. | Classy | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Not Classy |
| 15. | Honest | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Dishonest |
| 16. | Experienced | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Inexperienced |
| 17. | Beautiful | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Ugly |
| 18. | Unreliable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Reliable |
| 19. | Knowledgeable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unknowledgeable |
| 20. | Elegant | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Plain |
| 21. | Insincere | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Sincere |
| 22. | Qualified | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unqualified |
| 23. | Sexy | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Not Sexy |
| 24. | Trustworthy | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Untrustworthy |
| 25. | Unskilled | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Skilled |
| 26. | Not Likable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Likable |
| 27. | Similar to Me | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Not Similar to Me |

PART 4

INSTRUCTIONS: Here, we would like you to fill out a series of scales that examines your personal opinions of the MotorWorld advertisement that you just read and John Duncan, the salesperson. Again, **please respond to every scale** and never put more than one 'X' mark on a single scale. Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Remember, it is your true impression we want. There are not right or wrong answers. Please respond to each of the following items, based on this question: How do you, personally, feel about Joan as a salesperson?

28. Good _____ Bad
29. Irritating _____ Not Irritating
30. Interesting _____ Not Interesting

Do you like John?

31. Like _____ Dislike

Now, please respond to each of the following scales by indicating your feelings toward the product that John sells.

32. My feelings toward the product are good. _____ My feelings toward the product are bad.
33. My feelings toward the product are pleasant. _____ My feelings toward the product are unpleasant.
34. I like the product. _____ I dislike the product.

Please answer the following questions for each of the following three items. If you were in the market for one, how likely would you be to purchase a car from John?

35. It is likely. _____ It is unlikely.
36. It is possible _____ It is impossible.
37. It is probable. _____ It is improbable.

Please respond to each of the following items based on your opinion of the ad.

48. The ad is appealing.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
49. The ad is eye-catching.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
50. The ad is impressive.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
51. If I needed a computer, I would actively seek out this car dealership.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
52. The ad is believable.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
53. The ad is clear.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
54. If I needed a computer, I would patronize this car dealership.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
55. The ad is attractive.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
56. The ad is informative.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree
57. If I needed a computer, I would like to try this car dealership.
Strongly disagree _____ Strongly agree

PART 5

Next, we would like you to answer some questions about yourself. As with all responses, **anonymity is assured**. You will not and cannot be individually identified.

48. What is your age? ☐ 18-25 ☐ 26-35 ☐ 36-45
 ☐ 46-55 ☐ 56-65 ☐ 65 plus
49. Which best describes the highest level of education completed by you?
- ☐ High school or Vocational/Technical School Graduate
☐ Some college
 If currently enrolled, please indicate your year
 ☐ Freshman ☐ Sophomore ☐ Junior ☐ Senior
☐ College Graduate
☐ Attended or attending Professional or Graduate School
☐ Professional or Graduate School Graduate
50. Are you: Male ☐ Female ☐
51. What is your annual household income?
- ☐ Under \$25,000 ☐ \$50,001-\$75,000 ☐ Over \$100,000
☐ \$25,001-\$50,000 ☐ \$75,001-\$100,000
52. Have you purchased a car in the past six months? ☐ Yes ☐ No
53. If not, have you ever purchased a car? ☐ Yes ☐ No
54. What do you think was the purpose of this study?
55. What did you like or dislike about the ad?

Continue your answers on the back if necessary.

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